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THE NAMES "ISRAEL" AND "JUDAH" WITH AN EXCURSUS ON THE ETYMOLOGY OF TÔDÂH AND TÔRÂH

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THE casual student may be surprised to discover that many of the most familiar and most important personal and tribal names of the Bible are veiled in an almost impenetrable obscurity, so far as their morphology and exact meaning are concerned. Up to recently, the consensus of scholarship, that amorphous and perhaps over-docile body of learning, has been content to copy what has come down to us from the Hebrew grammarians and lexicographers of the past. Now, however, with the rapidly growing mass of materials from the Ancient Orient, this attitude is fast becoming an anachronism, as fully realized by the most progressive spirits.

Before utilizing the materials made available by cuneiform, hieroglyphic, South Arabian, Canaanite and Aramaic inscriptions already published, it is important to understand the elements of comparative Semitic philology, as this science has been and is still being developed by a devoted band of students. One need only mention the names of Brockelmann, Bergsträsser,

¹ Bergsträsser is probably the best all-around comparative Semitic philologist of the present day. To a thoroughly scientific approach to the ancient Semitic languages he adds an excellent phonetic training and a mastery of the modern Arabic dialects. When the edition of Gesenius's Hebrew Grammar being prepared by him is complete we shall have a standard handbook at last. In this paper I have consistently referred to Bauer and Leander's grammar, because of its historical point of view, which is of vital importance for researches in the philology of proper names.

Littmann, Lidzbarski, Bauer, Leander, Meissner, Zimmern, Ungnad, among others, to realize the difficulty and the brilliance of the researches which they have carried on in the last few years, building on the foundations of Gesenius. Barth and Haupt. 2 But there are few scholars with the necessary preliminary training to enable them to understand just what is meant by "comparative philological method." There are still fewer who enjoy the training and natural endowments of a Johannes Friedrich, who represents the highest point yet attained by the Orientalist in this field. Trained in both Semitic and Indo-European philology, his studies in the Phoenician and Aramaean inscriptions' rank with his researches in Hittite as the highwater mark of scientific method in both linguistic groups. It should be recognized that with the proper training and willingness to work one may do better in two or more specialties than another who lacks these prerequisites can do in the narrowest field. Semitic philology is a rich and productive territory, with very few who are willing to settle in it. We can only plead for more workers, so that this phase of oriental and biblical science may not continue to be neglected.

Before taking up the discussion of the names "Israel" and "Judah," it may be well to sketch briefly the method employed. It is now recognized by all Hebrew philologists of note, such as Bergsträsser, Bauer and Leander, Margolis, that we can no longer content ourselves with a blind following of Massoretic

- ² The importance of Haupt's researches in the comparative phonology and morphology of Assyrian and Hebrew is still very great. In his brilliant monographs and papers on these subjects, published between 1880 and 1895, he laid the foundations of scientific Assyrian grammar, as fully recognized by Delitzsch and Brockelmann. An account of his work has been given by the present writer, who happeus to be his pupil, in the Haupt Anniversary Volume, and an analysis of his contributions to Semitic philology has also been prepared for the forthcoming volume of the Beiträge zur Assyriologie, to consist largely of papers by Haupt himself.
- 3 Cf. his papers in the Zeitschrift für Semitistik, Vol. I, 8-14; II, 1-10. They show what can be done by a penetrating analysis of consonantal texts for their vocalization, and also what a sound method in historical philology can accomplish for our knowledge of the Canaanite dialects related to Hebrew.

rules for vocalization. We must compare the Egyptian (B) and revised (A) recensions of the Greek Bible, for which the Hexaplaric material studied especially by Margolis is of the greatest value. Yet we must not fall into the opposite danger of disregarding the vowel-points, on penalty of finding our last state worse than our first. We must compare the cuneiform materials with the utmost care, taking the precaution of distinguishing sharply between the dialects and languages represented, and paying the closest attention to the laws governing transcription in different periods and dialectic territories.4 Want of care in these details has spoiled many promising efforts to make use of the rich data from cuneiform sources. We must understand the principles of Egyptian phonology, as worked out by Sethe and the present writer, and must be able to apply them to the increasingly numerous hieroglyphic transliterations of West Semitic personal names. Last, but by no means least, we must be able to apply the methods of modern comparative philology. as emphasized above. It is of vital importance to understand the laws governing the reconstruction of the basic Semitic forms and their appearance in the later written languages. Classical Arabic still remains fundamental, since it is the only fully known Semitic language which preserves the original phonetic system virtually without modification. This applies to consonants, vowels and accentuation alike, as we know from the fact that a scientific

⁴ To claim, as used to be done by Naville, for example, that transcriptions are not bound by philological law, is simply to exhibit an extraordinary ignorance of what this expression means. It does not mean, as he seems to have thought, that soi-diseat philologists apply hypothetical "laws" governing the etymological relation of words in languages of the same group to sporadic transcriptions of words from some foreign tongue. "Philological law" is simply induction from a body of facts of the same class, like any other scientific law. Even in language everything is subject to law, but linguistic laws cannot be enunciated a priori, nor can we expect satisfactory results by restricting our induction to a selected series of facts. The same logical principles hold in all scientific reasoning.

⁵ See Sethe, ZDMG LXXVII (1925), 171 ff. and Nachschrift; the writer, Recueil de Travaux XL (1928), 66 ff.; Journal of Egyptian Archaeology (JEA) X, 6 ff., XII, 186 ff.; Zeitschrift für Agyptische Sprache, Vol. LXII, 64; Spiegelberg, JEA XII, 34; Gardiner, in an appendix to his new Egyptian Grammar.

comparison of the other Semitic tongues almost invariably leads us to assume forms which are practically identical with the corresponding ones in Arabic. Naturally, blind reliance upon Arabic forms is equally bad, since the morphology of the language has unquestionably changed much more than its phonology.

A. THE NAME "ISRAEL"

The original form and etymology of Heb. have been made the subject of extended discussion recently by Sachsse and Caspari. Sachsse's study may be found in his article Die Etymologie und älteste Aussprache des Namens KXXIV (1914), 1–16, while Caspari's refutation was published under the title Sprachliche und religionsgeschichtliche Bedeutung des Namens Israel, in the Zeitschrift für Semitistik, Vol. III (1924), pp. 194–211. Sachsse's study is in some respects excellent, and his conclusions have been accepted, e. g., by Sellin, Geschichte, Vol. I, p. 26. The present writer does not agree fully with either Sachsse or Caspari, as will be seen, considering both as philologically weak.

Sachsse gives an interesting and practically exhaustive list of nine different explanations of the name in ancient and modern times. Five of these are ancient, being either biblical or postbiblical, while four are modern. One of each group, the fourth and the ninth, drop out at once, because of their obvious improbability, and need not be repeated here. The rest may be described briefly, in the order given by Sachsse, with additional comments, where needed.

In the story of Jacob's wrestling with the "angel" (Gen. 32) it is related that the latter gave the former a new name, Yiśrā'ēl, as a memorial of his partly successful struggle, with the explanation כי שרית עם אלהים ועם אנשים ותוכל. In Hos. 12 4-5 there is an important poetic description of the same contest, in the course of a recital of Jacob's history:

בבמן עקב אחיו ובאונו שרה את־אלהים נישר אל מלאך ויוכל בכה ויתחנן־לו

Marti and others think that 5a is a gloss to 4b, but this is improbable for two reasons. First, the "gloss" is more difficult

to understand than the "original text"; and secondly, the metrical form and parallelism are now quite satisfactory, and would be destroyed if Marti's view were adopted. That there are difficulties must be admitted. The most serious one is that we do not know the true rendering of the verb """, which only occurs in these two passages, nor whether "" is correctly pointed or not. Before taking up the translation of the passage in Hosea it will be well to discuss the stems in Semitic which contain the strong consonants šr (Arab. šr, Heb. śr, Aram. sr, Assyr. šr). The discussion must be rather summary, however, since this is not the place for a full analysis, which will appear elsewhere.

First we find the root-meaning, "cut, saw," illustrated by Arabic wāšara, "to saw," and Eth. wāšāra, while in Assyrian we have māšāru (for wāšāru), "to cut," and šāššaru (for *šār-šāru), "saw." The Aram. nesūr and Arab. nāšāra, "to saw," are both secondary denominatives from a noun corresponding to Heb. māššor, from which Aram. massūrā and Arab. minšār are borrowed, perhaps from a still unknown Assyrian synonym of šāššaru. The original Semitic form of the noun is shown by Eth. mōšart, for *mawšart.* Assyr. mašāru, wāšāru, with the intensive uššuru, muššuru, also belongs with this root-meaning, since its significations, "be free" (intr.), and "let free, let go, abandon, send away, give over, entrust," clearly go back to "sever."

Another important root-meaning of δr is "to shine, be brilliant," illustrated by Assyr. $\delta ar\hat{a}rn - Arab$. $\delta arra - \delta \hat{a}r\hat{a} = \delta awwara$, etc. It may be that the words $\delta arru$, "king," δar , "prince," belong here, since $\delta ar\hat{a}ru$ and $\delta ar\hat{a}r$, "be king, rule," are in any case denominatives, like $mal\hat{a}k$ and Arab. $m\hat{a}laka$, while malku, $m\hat{e}lek$, $m\hat{a}lik$ are derived, as well known, from the stem $mal\hat{a}ku$, "consult, plan, decide," in which case we may connect $\delta arru$ with Arab. 'a $\delta \hat{a}ra$, "counsel," $mu\delta \hat{i}r$, "counsellor." While the Arab. stem $\delta arra$ has apparently not preserved this meaning, it interchanges otherwise with $\delta \hat{a}r\hat{a}$, $\delta awwara$. Eth.

⁶ This Ethiopic form is most certainly not due to a secondary dissimilation, as suggested by Brockelmann, Vergleichende Grammatik, I. p. 236. Nor is the Eth. wašára denominated from it, as he thought, oblivious for the moment of the Arabic and Accadian situation.

šarāra, "to be high," may, however, be the true stem of šarru, though it is impossible to be sure of the sibilant in Ethiopic, owing to the early confusion of all four s-sounds. At all events, Eth. šārāra, "to found, establish," certainly should have a sin, not a šin, since it belongs with Aram. The, Syr. šar, "be firm," just as the closely related šerā and Assyr. šurrū mean "to found, establish," while Eth. šerw (properly serw) is "foundation, root, tendon" (connected with Assyr. šir'ānu, Heb. partially reduplicated šoreš). The meaning "shine" is presumably connected ultimately with "cut," a very common semantic relationship, which does not concern us here, however, since it belongs rather to the field of linguistic origins.

The Arabic stem šárâ (شرى) introduces some more difficult semantic considerations, but most of its rather multifarious meanings may be satisfactorily related to one another. The meaning of the first form is both "buy" and "sell," while the eighth means simply "buy." The fourth has the sense "put discord between" ('ášrâ bajn), while the third (šârâ) means "persist in contention with, vie with," and the tenth "persist (in), be devoted (to something), etc." The nouns sara and šarîyah mean, respectively "road," and "way, mode of doing or acting." Arab. šarwā is "the like (of a thing)," its equivalent. The situation will become clearer if we compare the stem which appears in Assyrian as sanânu, "be like, counterpart," sitnunu, "vie, contend, struggle," sinnatu, "likeness, form" while in Ethiopic we have tasannana, "rival, contend," and sen (- šen), "form, beauty." The word sara may be explained in the same way; first we have "be like, correspond," from which the sense of "try to equalize, negotiate, buy and sell" arises. The fourth form means simply "cause to vie with, cause to contend," while the third corresponds exactly to sitnunu. The meaning of the tenth is secondary, as usual, and is derived from the third in the sense "strive, contend for something in one's own interest." There are other meanings of the stem which belong elsewhere, such as šárā, "flash, shine," šárā, "be angry," perhaps a conflation of the two stem-meanings, and tasarra, "be dispersed, scattered," which has a wholly different origin, belonging ultimately with nášara, "scatter," and its congeners. It is quite likely that the new root-meaning "be like," which we have deduced, is ultimately related to "shine," through "reflect," but this possibility is no further concern of ours here.

Among the less common stem-meanings which have fallen together in the &r category is one which is particularly interesting to us, and may be discussed briefly here. In Ethiopic šaraya means "to cure, heal." The stem has been connected with saráya, "to remit sins," but the ideas are not at all identical, and saráya belongs with Aram, šerâ, Arab. sárâ, "to loosen," in Aramaic also "to remit, absolve," while saraya cannot be separated from Arab. nášara, "revive, resuscitate (a sick man), provide (a patient) with amulets." The nouns nasr and nusur mean "life, resurrection." As is well known, there is in all Semitic languages, but especially in West and South Semitic, a constant interchange between stems primae waw and primae nûn, due to morphological contamination, as pointed out by Nöldeke. We are, therefore, justified in assuming an original Arabic stem "wášara, in this sense, just as nášara, "to saw." goes back to wasara, with the same meaning. The stem nasara has its own established sense in Arabic, "to scatter," a fact which is sufficient to suggest that násara, "to cure," is not original. Just how the meaning "to cure" arose is not easy to answer, especially since words of this type frequently have a rather less transparent derivation than less specialized verbs.

Returning to the passage of Hosea which is under discussion, it is evident at once that there is only one meaning occurring in related stems in the other Semitic languages which will fit the two occurrences of the verb $\hat{s}ar\hat{a}h$: "vie with, contend against (in rivalry)." That this fits the context admirably is clear. Arab. $\hat{s}\hat{a}r\hat{a}$ and Heb. $\hat{s}ar\hat{a}h$ are thus identical both in form and in primary meaning. Gen. 32 29 should be rendered: For thou hast contended in rivalry with God and with men, and hast prevailed. The first stichos of the couplet which we have been considering may be rendered:

(Already) in the womb he tricked his brother, And in his (manly) strength he vied with God.

⁷ See Dillmann, Lexicon, col. 245.

Cf. Nöldeke, Neue Beiträge, on Arab. wgd (wajada) - Eth. ngd.

Just what the Massoretes had in mind when they pointed the next word is a hapax is hard to say, since the stem is a hapax legomenon. Josephus believed it to mean "oppose," while Symmachus, Aquila and Onkelos derived it from it, "to rule." It is, at all events, clear that none of these interpreters had any other stems than śarāh and śarār in mind. If one were to solve the Gordian knot by the usual method of emendation, it might be suggested that we read as follows:

וַיִּשּׁר־אָל מלְכת ויוכָל בכָה ויְתחנְן־לו

This could be rendered, by pointing בשלה, from לגשלה, Assyr. našâru:

And he prevented God from going; He wept, and (God) forgave him.

However, this is dangerous, not least because of the secondary meaning of nasâru, properly "to check, reduce," which we would have to assume. It is better to leave the stichos unexplained, except to insist that "R is not the preposition, but means "God," since the play on the name "Nam" can hardly be accidental.

The second and third explanations of the name listed by Sachsse, those given by Josephus, Symmachus, Aquila and Onkelos, have already been mentioned, and need not be repeated. The fourth is the well-known patristic analysis of Arter as איש ראה אל האל. which is first found in Philo. For centuries no scholars have taken it seriously. The fifth explanation is that of Jerome (who inveighs against it in another place, however), who derived the verbal element from yasár, "to be straight, right." Since the sibilant is entirely different, we should hardly be justified in taking this view into consideration at all, were it not for the fact that it was adopted by Renan, from whom it has come down to more recent students, including Sachsse himself and Sellin, as already noted. The former makes no attempt. however, to justify the change in sibilant, apparently not regarding it as important. It is true that there are dialectic variations and loan-words which occasionally produce apparent violations of the laws regarding the sibilants in Semitic. but in this case

• As an illustration of the importance of a correct treatment of the sibilants of the writer's review of Bauer, Die Ostkanaanüer, Archiv für Orientforschung, vol. III, pp. 123ff. The subject of loan-words is only

there can be no question of a loan-word, or of a dialectic peculiarity, since "Israel" is the name of the entire people, and not that of a remote or insignificant subdivision of it.

Coming down to recent times, we find that virtually all the old explanations are abandoned. In his work, Die israelitischen Eigennamen, written more than fifty years ago, Nestle pointed out that the divine element in theophorous names is always subject, and never the object. It is true that, as Sachsse observes, there is an occasional exception, like Yehallel-el (2 Chr. 29 12), in Hebrew, but the exception only proves the rule. In Accadian we also have the same rule, also with a few exceptions, like Atánah-ili, "I cry unto the gods," an exceedingly popular name in the third millennium and the beginning of the second. But, of course, no personal name could ever mean "He contends with God," so the old popular etymology must drop out. All later students recognize this and follow Nestle's position that the divine name is the sub-

beginning to be studied scientifically on the foundations laid by Frankel, Haupt and Zimmern. A very fine illustration of the results of a sound method is the case of the Heb. Fir, "poem," long thought by many scholars to have some anomalous etymological connection with Arabic Si'r, "poem." The true explanation of the relation was discovered by Zimmern, who found that there was an Old Babylonian (Accadian) word Sîru, Jêru, "stanza, poem," which is the regular equivalent of Arabic Si'r. The Hebrew word has simply been derived from the Accadian. But at what time? Since the Babylonian sibilants, which are identical with the Canasnite (Phoenician and probably North Israelite; the Jewish series has a sin, pronounced like the Aramaic equivalent, samek: cf. JPOS VI. 83) were reversed in the Assyrian dialect, it follows that Sir was borrowed from Babylonian, not from Assyrian. But the specifically Assyrian, or North Mesopotamian pronunciation of the sibilants is known from the cuneiform transcriptions of Egyptian words and other sources to go far back into the second millennium, if it is not even older in part than the Babylonian. It thus covers not only the age of the Assyrian Empire, when northern influences were dominant in Syria and Palestine, but also the Late Bronze Age, when the West was under the sway of the Hurri culture of North Mesopotamia. The natural conclusion is that the word sir was borrowed in the Old Accadian or Old Babylonian age that is, before 1800 B. C., since it cannot have been borrowed as late as the Neo-Babylonian period, the only other one in which Babylonian influence prevailed over North Mesopotamian.

ject. Nestle and most of his successors render "Gott kämpft." Against this a number of arguments may, however, be brought. In the first place, as we have seen, there is no evidence for any rendering of sarah except "to vie with, to contend in rivalry." It probably does not mean "to wrestle," and there is no basis whatever for the view that the story of the wrestling is actiologically drawn from the name . In all likelihood the story of the wrestling is derived from a natural popular etymology of the name "Jabbok," as though it were instead of par. 10 The verb par is the very word used of the wrestling match on the banks of the Jabbok. If, as we have seen, the first element of the name "Israel" bore a related meaning, it is only natural that the name was connected with the story, but this is no indication that they were originally related. Now, returning to Nestle's theory, it is impossible to translate the name "God contends (in rivalry)," since God has no rivals with whom to contend. Such a name is unparalleled, and, so far as the writer can see, almost unthinkable.

Eduard Meyer's slight modification of Nestle's view, found in his Israeliten und ihre Nachbarstämme, p. 252, does not affect the theory. He renders "Der, welcher streitet, ist Gott," emphasizing the detachability of the verbal element, which in the early period is often found without the divine name. Morphologically, Meyer's interpretation is forced, since the imperfects were used alone as hypocoristica, perhaps in part because of a certain fear of using the divine name too freely, or in unpropitious ways. But it cannot be denied that the imperfects did assume an independent value as the statement of a quality or a characteristic, and were used commonly as divine appellations by themselves, so that Meyer's view is largely justified. But it does not help the case to render "He who contends (in rivalry) is God."

The suggestion of Vollers, Archiv für Religionsgeschichte, Vol. IX (1906), pp. 176–184, that is to be connected with šárâ, "to shine," and means "God shines," with especial reference to the solar character of the early Hebrew religion,

¹⁰ See Nathaniel Schmidt, JBL XLV (1996), 278.

is of a different type. Sachsse's objection that $\delta \hat{a}r\hat{a}$ does not actually mean "to shine, of the sun" in Arabic is hardly valid, since the related stems listed above do have this specific meaning, which, moreover, survives in a secondary use in Arab. $\delta \hat{a}r\hat{a}$, "to expose to the sun." But it is rare in early Semitic to find natural phenomena referred to in the ophorous names, which are nearly always social or individual in their applications. Moreover, the solar religion of the early Hebrews is only an unprovable assumption, just as obscure as their supposed lunar inclinations, and not nearly so easy to establish as an original Hadad or Storm-Baal cult.

Having gone through the list of previous views, Sachsse proceeds to analyze the vocalization of the name . Here he is quite unsuccessful, though he has given us some useful suggestions, which will be duly appreciated. We shall have to go our own way, however.

The vocalization of ישראל in # is not directly paralleled in any other name. Otherwise the rule is that the second consonant in the stem of an imperfect which precedes the substantive element in a compound name receives a sewâ when the verb is אל, אל, איל or ליש. We should expect the pointing אילי אל. As examples of this rule we may cite בְּלָאָל and יְדְנָאָל for יֹיִן verbs in composition, יוֹרָאָל for יִין verbs, and דְרָאָאֹר for יִין verbs. There is at least one interesting case where a 1"D verb is treated in the same way, which is only natural. This is Trip, for * Yibilam < * Yābilam. In a paper to appear in AJSL, attention has been called to this name, in connection with the explanation of Bildad as standing for * Yabil-dad, like Bil'am for Yabil-'am. Among the Amorite names of the First Dynasty of Babylon we also find the name Yabil-werra, literally "Wêr (the name of Hadad or Ramman in the Upper Euphrates country) produces (crops. offspring)." In hypocoristic formations the imperative often replaces the full imperfect and even the jussive, itself essentially of the same nature when found in proper names.11

There are some exceptions to the general rule which has

¹¹ Cf. Annual of Am. School of Or. Res., Vols. II-III, p. 24, p. 10.

been given in the previous paragraph. We have one name which is really a good parallel to שְׁבְעָשׁל, but which differs from it superficially, in that the vowel of the second syllable of the imperfect is protected by the final 'ayin'. The The imperiect is protected by the iniai ayai: אַנְעָבְיּיִי: Ine Chronicler also offers a number of cases where a yôd is inserted, e. g.: בְּעִבְּיִּאֵל, בְּיִוּיִיאֵל, בּיִבְּיִיאַל. Sachsse very correctly observes that these anomalous spellings are due to the fact that the Chronicler wrote at the time when plene writing was coming into general use, and the later redactors, following their custom of respecting whatever was in the text, did not disturb them, though they did not insert the yôd in corresponding names in other parts of the Bible which had received their final form before the Chronicler's time. When the Massoretes came to vocalize the text, they naturally had to follow the consonantal text. Sachsse thinks that the form yigli'ēl is, therefore, older than the Massoretic vigle'cl. In this view he is certainly wrong, since the former vocalization is wholly out of harmony with the development of Hebrew morphology, and the Greek transcriptions prove, as we shall see, that the final vowel of the verbal element had an a coloring, not an i coloring at all. The fact that the transcriptions in 6 of the yight'ēl type of name in Chronicles also exhibit an i only confirms the age of the plene spelling; the Greek scribes behaved just as the Massoretes did later when confronted with the same situation. The true explanation of these forms in the Chronicler's work is simply that he wrote in an Aramaic milieu,18 before the Hebrew reaction was strong enough to be thoroughly self-conscious, and so he employed numerous Aramaic nameforms. Nothing could be simpler or clearer.

The explanation of the a vowel in Yiśrā'ēl is furnished by a study of the Septuagintal and Hexaplaric transcriptions of the Sewā in names of this type. Thus $\mathbf{6}$ writes \mathbf{I} σραηλ, but also \mathbf{I} εζραηλ; \mathbf{I} βλααμ (\mathbf{A}) and \mathbf{I} εβλααμ (so for the \mathbf{E} κβλααμ, etc., of \mathbf{B}), as well as \mathbf{B} αλααμ for the shortened form \mathbf{D} Σ; \mathbf{I} ερφαηλ, to give only a few clear examples. Just what this

 $^{^{12}}$ For the date of the Chronicler see JBL XL, 104 ff , and JPOS VI, 98 ff.

means is explained by the careful analysis of the new Hexaplaric transcriptions which has been published by Margolis. According to this it is only when the $\tilde{seu}\hat{a}$ is followed by a laryngeal that we have an a vowel in Greek, as in $\beta a \tilde{a} \tilde{b}$ for $\tilde{a} \tilde{b} \tilde{b}$, and so on. The fact is that we have only the elements $\tilde{e}l$ and $\tilde{a}m$, as well as $y\tilde{a}h\tilde{u}$, after the imperfect verb in composite names of the type we are interested in. The first two begin with laryngeals, while the third begins with a y, which habitually assimilates a preceding vowel, so is not of value for this study.

From the preceding paragraph it becomes clear that our \$\sec{sewa}\$ had an a coloring before a weak laryngeal in the pre-Massoretic age, from the third century B. C. to the third century A. D., regardless of whether it belonged originally to a \$\forall '', \text{N''}\$ or \$\subseteq D\$ imperfect. The latter case proves conclusively that it is a secondary development under the influence of the laryngeal. Under the influence of Aramaic the Massoretes reduced what then amounted to a short a vowel in an open syllable to \$\sec{seva}\$, except in the case of the two best known, and constantly used names, \$\subseteq i\sigma'\s

The Massoretes have preserved the a vowel correctly in a number of clipped forms, that is, in hypocoristica with the substantive element dropped, but with its original presence still betrayed by the vocalization. We are referring to such personal names as \vec{n} , \vec{n} , etc., the vocalization of which is supported by the Greek Iema, Iovôa, etc. The original names from which they have been clipped were naturally $*Y\hat{o}r^e\hat{e}l > *Y\hat{o}r^a\hat{e}l$, $*Y^e\hat{n}\hat{u}d^e\hat{e}l > *Y^e\hat{n}\hat{u}d^e\hat{e}l$, etc. Had they been preserved we should have had the Septuagintal spelling $*I\omega\rho a\eta\lambda$ and $*I\omega\rho a\eta\lambda$, while the Massoretes would have given us \vec{n} , and \vec{n} , or more probably, in the latter case, on the analogy of \vec{n} , \vec{n} , \vec{n} , \vec{n} . By the side of

¹³ In his paper, "The Pronunciation of the May according to New Hexaplaric Material," AJSL XXVI (1909-10), p. 66.

these clipped forms there are in Chronicles some Aramaizing ones like Th, which are strictly on a par with the well-known Aramaizing hypocoristica Yannai for Yônatán and Honnai for Yônanán, etc., which become so common in the Maccabaean age.

The attempts of Sachsse and Caspari to explain the a vowel in Yiśra'êl are no better than De Lagarde's suggestion in his Bildung der Nomina, p. 131, endorsed and further complicated by Caspari. 14 De Lagarde maintained that the length of the vowel was due to an archaic preservation of the original verbal form of the rádiva-varda (*šáriva-vašrâ) type in names of important eponymous heroes. Sachsse's objection is mainly that commonly used names are just as likely to exhibit advanced phonetic decay as artificially retained archaism. He forgets, however, that Biblical forms tend to show a conscious, literary archaism, which would be most likely to appear in important names, where the tradition was best preserved. He rather evades the question of the a vowel by telling us (p. 5): "Das jiqtol von שוה – שוה [!], verschmolzen mit dem Gottesnamen & ergibt ohne weiteres." This remarkable statement is maintained by showing that apocopated names of yigtol form regularly have the vocalization i-a, except in a few archaic forms like מַשְׁלֵב and מְשָׁבוּ. He neglects, however, to make a distinction between the games which represents a tone-long patah and the qames which represents short o. properly a games hatuf, though the Massoretic system is far from consistent in its treatment of the short o. That these forms were originally clipped from the full composite names. and preserve the shortened vocalization, has been shown above. With their shortened vocalization they became indistinguishable from jussive forms, and were actually treated as such. 16 One

¹⁴ Caspari has not only cited the wrong page of De Lagarde's book, but he has completely misunderstood him. On p. 196 of his article he ascribes to him the extraordinary view "daß der Name Israel noch lange als Satz, aus Subjekt und Prädikat, also zwei Worten, bestehend, aufgefaßt worden sei." Such treatment is unjust to a very great scholar.

¹⁶ See JBL XLIII, 373.

cannot, however, extend the analogy of strong verbs and verbs tertiae laryngalis to verbs tertiae infirmae "ohne weiteres," without being guilty of the most serious philological non sequitur. Caspari, on the other hand, while completely misunderstanding De Lagarde, correctly insists on the comparison of Ieρφαηλ. It is only strange that he did not cite the Arabic personal name Yūrfā (عُرِيْ), ie a hypocoristicon from *Yarfā'i, where the intransitive verb is actually formed on the model required by De Lagarde for Yiśrā'ēl. Of course, we are only setting up this parallel in order to tear it down; in Arabic yūrdā stands for *yūrday(a), and originated probably in the elision of intervocalic yōd in the subjunctive. In Hebrew final ay in the imperfect became ê (written as an open segōl with hê), which prevailed over the *i and *ū of the regular transitive imperfects of verbs *'o and *vo.

Having disposed of the (-srw) of (-srw), we are free to derive the verb from (-srw) (-srw or sry), (-srv) (-srv). In discussing the semantics of the Hebrew stem sarah— Arab. sarah, we have made it improbable that Yisravel can be derived from it, since neither the meaning "He contends (in rivalry) with God," nor the better "God contends (in rivalry)" is at all acceptable. If we assume that the verb developed the general meaning "to fight," which is quite without evidence, we still find ourselves faced with a very unusual meaning for an ancient Semitic theophorous name, quite without parallel, so far as the writer knows. Even the elaborate and more or less relevant discussion of Caspari, in the paper to which we have often referred, only succeeds in impressing, not in convincing.

No verb k = k appears to be known, either in Hebrew or in the other Semitic tongues, so we have only the one alternative $w \acute{s} r$, which has something to be said in its favor, both morphologically and semantically. If it is the true source of the imperfect in which we are interested, we should expect an

¹⁶ For this and similar names of the interesting paper of Brau, Wiener Zeitschrift für Kunde des Morgenlandes, Vol. XXXII (1925), especially p. 89.

original *Yaśir-'el, later becoming *Yiśir'el> *Yeśere'ēl> Yiśre'ēl. by a perfectly normal and regular Hebrew development, like Yibl am for original *Yabilam. The loss of the short vowel between the second and third stem-consonants of the verb is ancient, being paralleled by the old West Semitic name Binahme-el, by dissimilation for *Minahme-el, for *Minahhim-el, like Heb. Y'rahme'el for *Yirahhim-'el. 17 Originally it was naturally due to the elision of the 'alef in ordinary conversation. leading to the pronunciation *Minahmêl. *Y'rahmêl. Since the separate force of the element 'ēl was always fully understood, this elision of the 'alef remained sporadic, and never attained the rank of a phonetic law, as we see plainly by the fact that the 'alef gave the sewa an a coloring in later times. By the side of *Yaśir'el we should expect some indication of a shorter form *Sir'el. based on the imperative, like Bil'am for Yibl am, Šefar am for *Yispar am, Qabs ēl for Y gabs ēl. Hizgîyáhû for Y hizg yáhû, etc. As a matter of fact, we do have this very form in Assyrian transcription, just as we have $Y^{\bullet}h\hat{u}d$, the shorter form of the name $Y^{\bullet}h\hat{u}d\hat{a}h$, also preserved (see below) in Assyrian spelling. In the inscriptions of Shalmaneser III, the mention of the name of Ahab is followed by the gentilic Sir-'i-la-a-a, i. e., Sir'ilâ'a, the man of Sir'il. Since the Assyrians pronounced the Accadian 8 as s, and s as š. 18 the actual pronunciation of the word was Šir'il or Šir'el. The sibilant in the corresponding Hebrew word could be either or b. since both are transcribed s, i. e., š, in Assyrian.

¹⁷ See Archiv für Orientforschung, Vol. III, p. 125 b.

¹⁸ Cf. the ample material collected by Tallqvist, Assyrian Personal Names, especially the introduction, p. xviii, and Delaporte, Épigraphes araméens. Cf. also the remarks JEA XII, 187.

¹⁹ See JBL XLIII, 386, and for the explanation of the apparent difficulty JPOS VI, 83: in Northern Israel the three sins all fell together, as in Babylonian and especially in Phoenician, with which the dialect of Samaria seems to have been essentially identical. In Judah the sin was pronounced as samek, following Aramaic practise (perhaps due to the fact that the South Judaean tribes actually spoke an Aramaic dialect, as we know from the Sbishak List and the traces which have survived of the Edomite language). The Jews were, however, forced to preserve the sin because of the powerful influence of

The decision between them is a matter for the Hebraist to decide, and he has not the least difficulty, in spite of Sachese. Caspari has correctly compared the Assyrian form to the reduced Hebrew names just cited, but without understanding it fully. It is possible that Sir'il stands for *Sere'el, containing the imperative of a verb tertiae infirmae, but in this case the spelling *Si-ri-'i-la-a-a would be expected. In any case it is impossible to compare Sir'ila'a directly with the Heb. gentilic Yiśrell. The state of the most natural to compare *Sirel with Bil'am, and to regard the element sir as the regular imperative of a stem wir, just as bil is the imperative of wbl. Sachsse's reconstructed * Y'šar'el exhibits an a vowel which is not found in the Assyrian transcription, and is hence quite arbitrary. His further attempt to prove from the Egyptian syllabic spelling in the Merneptah Stele that there was a vowel between the \dot{s} and the r is quite misleading, as correctly pointed out by Caspari, though the effort of the latter to prove from Burchardt that the writing proves just the opposite is equally misleading. As is becoming increasingly certain, now that we know something about the prehistory of the syllabic orthography, and find that Max Müller's derivation of it from cupeiform was wrong, after all, neither vowels nor lack of them are indicated in the Egyptian transcriptions of foreign names. The writing of the sibilant as s (bar) in the hieroglyphic form of the name does not prove anything either, since the Egyptians followed Hebrew (Canaanite) and Amorite use of the sibilants quite indiscriminately in their transcriptions. 21

We have thus made it probable, though not certain, that the original form of the name Yiśrā'ēl was *Yaśir-'el, from a verbal stem ***. The usual meaning of this stem in the Semitic languages is "to cut, saw," which is not suitable, and

the historical spelling, which had come to them from the more literary North.

²⁰ As has been done by most scholars; cf. Brown, Briggs and Driver, *Hebrew Lexicon*, s. v., and the writer, *JBL* XLIII, 386. The mere fact that the Assyrians employed their own gentilic shows that they were not trying to reproduce the Hebrew gentilic.

²¹ Cf. JPOS VI, 82, n. 15.

has no semantic modifications which fit our requirements. However, we have seen that Arab. nášara for *wāšara and Eth. šarāya share the significance "to heal (the sick)." Interchange between stems primae waw and tertiae infirmae has been common in Semitic from the earliest times, being just as frequent in Egyptian as in the Semitic tongues of Asia, so there is no difficulty here. The fact that the stem *yaśār is not found in Biblical Hebrew is rather in favor of the combination, since its disappearance would explain how the meaning of the name came to be so thoroughly forgotten. "God heals" is a meaning which may be closely paralleled in all the Semitic languages; one need only refer to the familiar Hebrew names Yirpe'ūl and Rafā'ēl. Even if we accept the derivation of Yiśrā'ēl from a verb śarāh, we may translate it in the same way, following Ethiopic šarāya directly; cf. the name śerāyāh.

If the original meaning of the name "Israel" was "God heals," it follows that it was not primarily a tribal name, as has been often thought, but a personal name, the name of the founder of the tribe, whose later members regarded themselves as his offspring, the Benê Yiśrā'ēl. It therefore becomes impossible to regard the name as one assumed by the followers of Moses in Transjordan. The name is pre-Mosaic, and, to judge from the traditions in Genesis, the tribal chief Yiśrā'ēl replaced the tribal chief Ya'qob during the Patriarchal Age. In both cases we may, equally well, say "tribe" instead of "tribal chief."

B. THE NAME "JUDAH"

The name "Judah," "הקדה", is generally considered as decidedly obscure. Certainly one does not gain much confidence as to its etymology from the perusal of the rare attempts which have been seriously made to explain it fully. The lexicographers are usually contented either with a non liquet or with a question mark after their "explanation." And yet there is nothing mysterious about the form, as will appear

²² Cf. Recueil de Travaux, Vol. XL, pp. 69, 71.

on a careful analysis and comparison of related forms. It is, however, quite true that the explanation of the form is not altogether obvious; at least the writer is not willing to consider it as such on recollection of the devious paths by which he came to his present view, and the erroneous interpretations with which he dallied. So far as we know there has not been any recent discussion of the subject, so we shall have to collect our own list of explanations, without, however, trying to make it as complete as has been done by Sachsse, in his discussion of the name "Israel."

יהודה – אתה יודוך אחיך ידך בערף איביך

Judah: Thou, thy brethren will praise thee,

While thy hand is on the neck of thy foes,

There is a double paronomasia, once with the verb yôdû, and again with the noun yad (also pronounced yod). The old explanations are all based on one or the other of these two, and the verb is taken, sometimes as active, sometimes as passive. Up to recently the standard explanation, found in most handbooks, was "Praised (?)." So far as I know, the only serious attempt which has been made to explain the vocalization is that of Haupt, OLZ XII, 162 f., ZDMG LXIII (1909), 513, n. 1. According to him Yehûdâh is a feminine collective of *Yehôdêh, "Er bekennt," in the sense "He acknowledges allegiance to the religion (of Yahwêh)." *Yehôdêh is the older form corresponding to the later participle môdêh, just as the name Me'ir represents older Ya'ir. The expression מכן is really equivalent to the Arabic 'amîr al-mu'minîn, "Commander of the Faithful." For the feminine collective Haupt compared GK (Gesenius-Kautzsch) § 122s, while for the vocalization \hat{u} instead of the \hat{o} which we should expect he referred to GK § 27 n and Brockelmann, Vergleichende Grammatik, I, 143 δ . The obvious objection to this extremely ingenious explanation is its artificiality. We do not find names which show any such development in early Western Asia, nor do we find a feminine abstract (or collective) employed as a tribal name. Moreover, it is dangerous to consider the \hat{n} in such a common and well-known name as $Yeh\hat{u}d\hat{u}h$ as being a corruption of \hat{o} ; there can be no question of dissimilation here.

In 1893 (JBL XII, 61-72), Morris Jastrow Jr., then at the very outset of his scholarly career, discussed the name in full, though he unfortunately based his treatment upon the erroneous reading of the tribal name "Judah" in the Amarna Tablets. However, his views were original, and are still worthy of consideration. On pp. 68 ff. he discussed the original and derived forms of the name. He pointed out correctly that the Assyrian transliteration Ya-u-du can only be the equivalent of Y'hûd (see below), which is not an Aramaic form, as formerly believed. He also called attention to some old place and personal names which are connected with Y'hûd. Judah. but since they will all be taken up in due course, we need not dwell on them here. He was, however, inclined to think that, while Y hûd and Y hûdâh might be originally connected, they are distinct names, belonging probably to distinct tribes, an older one in Northern Palestine and a vounger in Southern Palestine. The names were later confounded in form because of the common gentilic Y'hûdî. He was inclined also to consider Y'hûdâh as a contraction of the name Yáhû and some verbal element, either yûdâh (from TT, but the form is not explained), or da ah, found in El-da ah. For a *Yahû-yûdah he compared the similar contraction in Y'hûkûl, for *Yahûyūkāl. This is very ingenious; the writer also first tried to explain the name as either *Yahû-yûdêh, or preferably *Yahûhûdâh, which would become directly *Yahûdâh, by the simplest type of haplology. However, there is a much better explanation of the name, as we shall see, so it is not necessary to resort to philological gymnastics at all.

In Die Israeliten und ihre Nachbarstämme, p. 441, Eduard Meyer connected Y'hûdâh with the noun hôd, "majesty," and

rendered the name "Er ist majestātisch." $Y^*h\hat{u}d\hat{a}h$, he thought, stood for ${}^*\bar{Y}^*h\hat{u}d\hat{a}h {}^-i\bar{e}l$, a view in which he was entirely correct, as we shall see. With his usual clear-sightedness Meyer recognized that the previous explanations were defective, and found one which suited ancient nomenclature better, though it must be confessed that he rather passed over the philological exeges of the name.

We need not linger on the theories which have been advanced from time to time, connecting the name iTMT with the name of the district iTMT, perhaps the Assyrian Yaudi, in Northern Syria. Some of these scholars regard the name as Semitic, others as non-Semitic, while still others connect the name $Yahw\hat{v}h$, or $Y\hat{u}h\hat{u}$ with it. None of them have, of course, been propounded by Semitic philologists, and they all serenely disregard scientific method.

The name TRT is supported in its vocalism by the Greek transcriptions louday for the patriarch, and louda for the tribe and kingdom. These transcriptions indicate that the historic spelling no longer represents the actual pronunciation, which was rather contracted to Yûdâh, just as we should expect from such parallels as Yô from Yahû and yôdêh from y*hôdêh. As we have already noted, there is not the least evidence for a possible pronunciation *Y*hôdâh, as assumed by Haupt. The Assyrian transcription Yaudu (Ya-u-du) can only reflect an actual pronunciation Yahûd or Yahûd, as correctly seen in 1893 by Jastrow (cf. above). That Yaudu does not represent a possible Y'hûdâh or Y'hûdâh is shown by such cuneiform transcriptions as Ta-am-na-a, Tamnâ. 23 for Heb. Timnah, properly Tamnah, like the Thamna of the Greek. Were the name Phoenician or North Palestinian we should have the transcription Tamnat, but in Judah and Philistia the feminiue ending was early changed to ah, as proved both by the Egyptian and the Assyrian transcriptions; cf. Eg. Rbn for Libnah. 4 A form Y'hûdâh would have to

²³ Taylor Cylinder of Sennacherib, II, 83.

²⁴ See Max Müller, Egyptological Researches, Vol. II, p. 114. That Rbn is Libnah near Ekron follows from the fact that it precedes the latter in this very list. The Shishak List shows a number of very

be transcribed Ya-u-da-a, i. e., $Yaud\hat{a}$ (which must not be confused with the gentilic Ya-u-da-a, $Yaud\hat{a}$ 'a, found several times in the Assyrian texts). In the period of the Late Assyrian inscriptions the case endings had long since disappeared, and the use of an apparent nominative ending in Yaudu means nothing, since it was not pronounced. This is not the place to discuss the possible form Yaudi, supposed by most scholars to refer to the North Syrian state of "N", when it occurs in the inscriptions of Tiglathpileser III. Luckenbill has recently given a strong argument in favor of the identification of Yaudi with Judah. 25 as maintained by all students down to the time of Winckler, but the question is still very obscure. At all events, a possible variant form Yaudi would not affect our results in the least, because of the negligible character of the case endings, as just noted.

What is the relation between the forms $Y^eh\hat{u}d\hat{n}h$ and $Y^eh\hat{u}d\hat{s}$. It is at first sight tempting to accept the suggestion of Jastrow, that the names are connected through the common gentilic $Y^eh\hat{u}d\hat{n}$, formed regularly by both $Y^eh\hat{u}d\hat{n}h$ (like Arab. Makkah, Makkây; Accad. Subartu, Subarû; Heb. Timnâh, Timnî) and $Y^eh\hat{u}d$. Jastrow thought that the two distinct names were thrown together by the common gentilic. It would be more likely that $Y^eh\hat{u}d$ arose as a secondary back-formation, like *Šîlôn from Šīlôh through the gentilic Šīlônî; cf. Arab. Seilûn from *Šīlôn. Another parallel would be the development of Efrát from Efráyim through the gentilic Efrātî. The phenomenon is very common, and many additional examples might easily be given. But this explanation is not necessary, as we shall see.

The explanation of the form $Y^*h\hat{u}d\hat{a}h$ is rendered simpler if we compare some other ancient personal names containing a similar verbal element. From early Hebrew history two very interesting names have come down to us: $Amm\hat{i}h\hat{u}d$, mentioned Num. 1 10, etc., as the name of the father of $El\hat{i}\bar{s}\bar{a}m\hat{a}'$, official

striking differences in the phonetic system of Hebrew when compared to the lists of the Eighteenth and Nincteenth Dynasties. For one thing, the old h and h have fallen together, becoming h, as has been the situation ever since; cf. JPOS VI, 82.

^{23 &}quot;Azariah of Judah," AISL XLI, 217-232.

representative of Ephraim in the time of Moses; Abîhûd, the name of one of the sons (later clans) of Bela' son of Benjamin. We may divide these names so as to obtain from them a noun hûd, which might be identical with hôd, "majesty," but the names cannot mean "My people is majesty," and "My father is majesty." It is, therefore, only left to us to analyze the names so as to yield verb-forms: *Ammî-yhûd and *Abî-yhûd. Since these forms would, of course, be contracted to the present Hebrew forms, there is no difficulty whatsoever in the way of accepting them. They are clearly jussives of the unused hof al of hôdâh, "to praise." In order to bring these forms clearly before our minds, it may be well to present the relevant paradigms of hôdâh and the parallel verb hôrâh, "to instruct in tôrâh," in a skeleton table. The etymology of the verbs will be elucidated in the excursus to this paper.

	Hif`îl		Hof 'ál	
Perfect	กรูก	הוְרָה	नमृत*	* הוּרָה
Imperfect	יונה יוונה	יונָה	*نەشد } *ئىشد	•יונֶדה
Jussive	* יוד }	* יור	*;THT }	+137

From this table it will be seen that $y^ch\hat{u}d$ is the regular uncontracted hof'al jussive of $h\hat{o}d\hat{a}h$, and the names 'Ammih $\hat{u}d$ and Abih $\hat{u}d$ must, accordingly, mean, respectively, "Let my people be praised, Let my father be praised." The uncontracted imperfect of the hof'al would be $y^ch\hat{u}deh$, and its Massoretic form in composition with ' $\hat{e}l$ would be 'AFT'*, which would appear in the Greek spelling of the Septuagintal period as *Iovâan\(\lambda\). Above, in our discussion of the Massoretic form of the name ' \hat{u}_i ', Greek \hat{u}_i ', we showed that the \hat{u}_i ' in that name is simply the pretonic lengthening of the traditional short a vowel, which originated in the influence of the weak laryngeal 'alef upon the preceding *\tilde{s}ev^2\tau\$, giving it an a coloring, as proved conclusively by the Septuagintal and Hexaplaric material. When hypocoristica were formed from composite names of this type, the clipped imperfects retained the a coloring,

which was lengthened to games under the tone, as in Yôrâh and Yôšâh, etc. This is the natural explanation of the final long a in Y'hûdâh, and the definitive proof as well that Y'hûdâh is a hypocoristicon of *Yehûde'ēl, which means either "God is praised," or more probably "Let God be praised." Passive verbs are not nearly so common in proper names as are actives, but this is naturally true of the Hebrew language in general. There are a number of passive verbs in proper names, besides the 'Ammîhûd and Abîhûd just cited. We also have Yefunnêh (a pu'al, which should perhaps be vocalized * Yefunnâh, however) and especially the group of town names (originally personal names) ending in 'el and 'am: Youne' am, Yorge' am and Yogde' am (though the two latter are probably identical, and should be read Yogre am), 28 Yogte el. Yogne am appears in 6 as Iervan. which suggests a vocalization as Yique am, literally "The people acquires," 27 but the other forms are probably correctly vocalized

The town name $Y^ch\hat{u}d$ in Dan is frequently quoted as connected in some way with $Y^ch\hat{u}d\hat{u}h$. This is, however, erroneous, since a critical study of the versions, in connection with the outside topographical material, shows that the Massoretic text is wrong. Goffers $A\zeta\omega\rho$ (B), which has reminded both Alt and the writer independently of the Assyrian Azuru, modern Yazûr near Jaffa. We should read in the Hebrew text \mathfrak{m}^* and in $\mathfrak{G}^*Ia\zeta\omega\rho$. Since the situation of the town is even more suitable to the sequence in the lists of Danite towns than is the site of el-Yahūdiyeh, formerly identified with "Jehud," this correction is absolutely certain. In passing it may be observed that it is an excellent illustration of the great value of the Septuagintal text for the study of Palestinian topography. When some new studies of the writer have been published, probably not until after the appearance of Margolis's edition of the Greek Joshua,

²⁶ The name Yogr am would mean "The people is called (invited)," sc. to settle, or the like, which offers a perfectly fitting significance; the present forms of an are unintelligible, and 6 does not seem to help.

²⁷ Annual, II-III, 24, n. 10.

²⁸ See Palästinajahrbuch, Vol. XXI (1925), p. 54.

its importance will be even more evident than has previously been the case.²⁰

It has been shown above that the cuneiform transcription Ya-u-du reflects a Hebrew $Y^{e}h\hat{u}d$, or rather * $Y^{a}h\hat{u}d$, where the coloring of the šewā is due to the influence of the weak larvngeal. Y'hûd was evidently the form employed commonly by the preexilic Jews in everyday language, and was still used by the Aramaic speaking Jews after the exile, as we know from the Aramaic portions of Daniel and Ezra, where it is frequent, as well as from the Elephantine Papyri (Sachau 7:1). Since Y'hûd is not explicable as an Aramaizing of Y'hûdâh, it has always been a puzzling form to the student of the relation between Hebrew and Palestinian Aramaic. 80 We have, moreover, a perfect parallel in the fact that the jussive form of the divine name Yahweh was ordinarily used by the Aramaic speaking Jews after the exile, as we know from the Elephantine Papyri and the official stamps of the temple treasury from the fourth century B. C. 31 The jussive Yáhû instead of the literary Hebrew Yahwêh is exactly on a par with the jussive Y'hûd in place of the literary Y'hûdâh.

The parallel between the use of Yahwêh, Yûhû on the one hand, and Yêhûdâh, Yêhûd on the other is so significant that it will be of importance to insist on the explanation of the development of the name Yahwêh which the writer has already given JBL XLIII (1924), 370-8, and XLIV, 158-162. In these papers the following process is defended. First of all we have a regular imperfect of the hif îl of the stem hwy (Heb. hayâh, "to be"), in the sense "He (who) causes to come into existence," like later Hebrew mehawwêh. The element yakîn, "cause to exist, create," is found not infrequently in early West Semitic proper names, just as we find the causatives šubšû and śhūr, "to cause to be," employed in Accadian and Egyptian personal

²⁰ See especially the writer's paper "The Topography of the Tribe of Issachar," ZATW XLIV, 226 ff.

³⁰ Gesenius-Buhl considers it a back-formation from Y'hadi.

³¹ For the temple seals see *JPOS* VI, 93 ff., especially p. 101. The views here expressed have been endorsed by Vincent; see *Revue Biblique*, 1926, 635 f.

names from early times. Yahwêh, however, is not a hypocoristicon, nor a clipped form (which explains why it was not vocalized Yahwah), but is simply a divine name formed on the then common analogy of names of ancestral tribal deities which arose as hypocoristics of composite names with an imperfect verb as the first element. Our stock of similar early West Semitic names is now being materially increased by the Amorite material from Babylonia, 82 as well as hy the West Semitic names found on broken vases of about 2000 B. C., recently published by Sethe. 23 The form of the name offers no difficulty, since doubly weak words with waw as a stem consonant often retain it in Hebrew, and do not change it to v. just as in Accadian the waw of the early languages is often retained (written as m = w) in doubly weak verbs and forms, like emû, "to be," for *hawâyu, emû, "to speak," for *hawâyu, etc. That the same is also true of Amorite was shown by the writer recently. From Yahwêh, the jussive Yáhû arose regularly, as in the numerous cases gathered by the writer in the first of his two papers. Above we have explained the interchange of hypocoristica of the imperfect and jussive types as originating in composite names where they fell together. Once the confusion had arisen, it was naturally extended by analogy even to imperfect forms which were not abbreviations, and hence show no traces of clipping. However, it is quite possible that the shorter form Yahû was influenced in its spread by theophorous names in which Yahweh was followed by an imperfect verb. Thus the name *Yahweyarîb (Yôyārîb), with a šewâ, as we have seen in our discussion of the name "Israel." could not be pronounced otherwise than Yahûyarîb, since the šewâ is naturally absorbed by the following $y \hat{o} d$. When the analogy of the justive was fortified by the actual occurrence of the form Yahu in proper names, the latter naturally became the usual popular

²² See Bauer, Die Ostkanaander, Leipzig, 1926, and the writer's review, Archiv für Orientforschung, Vol. III. pp. 124 ff.

³³ See Sethe, Abh. d. Preuss. Akad. d. Wiss., 1926, Phil. hist. Klasse, Nr. 5.

³⁴ Archiv für Orientforschung, Vol. III, p. 125 a.

³⁸ Bauer-Leander, § 17 e, p. 201.

pronunciation of the name of the God of Israel. We thus find it becoming the regular form of His name, not only among the common Aramaic speaking Jews of Elephantine, but also among the official circles in Jerusalem, as we know from the fact that it was used on the seals of the temple treasury in the fourth century B. C. After the exile it is safe to suppose that all four forms, Yahwèh (— Babyl. Yâwa, Ya-a-ma), Yâhû, Yah (in the temple liturgies, etc.) and Yô or Yau were employed together. The form "Yehô" originated with the Massoretes, as the writer pointed out in the two papers referred to above.

The writer's views have been more or less opposed by several scholars recently; we may refer especially to the papers of Burkitt, "On the Name Yahweh" (JBL XLIV, 353-6), Driver, "The Aramaic Language" (JBL XLV, 323-5) and Waterman, "Method in the Study of the Tetragrammaton" (AJSL XLIII, 1-7). The purpose of Burkitt is only to call attention to the theory of Van Hoonacker. 36 which he believed the writer to have overlooked. This happens to be wrong; the writer was interested in the philological side, and saw no reason to quote Van Hoonacker, whose view did not happen to be peculiar to that distinguished scholar. According to the latter, the old name $Y\hat{a}h\hat{u}$, then thought erroneously to be attested in cuneiform texts of the third millennium, was transformed by Moses in order to bring the idea "to be" into it. The name Yahwêh, not a regular form from 777, is "the result of the transformation of Yahû on the model of yihyêh," which explains the presence of the vowel a in the preformative and of w instead of the radical v. This theory requires no further refutation than a request to compare the remarks in the foregoing paragraph.

G. R. Driver's short paper is devoted to the defense of a thesis which has no particular connection with the title. He maintains that both in Aramaic and in Hebrew hê is often a litera prolongationis, with no consonantal force, in the middle of a word. According to him such forms are found in Hebrew occasionally as early as the ninth century B. C., 777 being one, and shortly afterwards in Aramaic as well. Even Aram.

³⁴ Une communauté judéo-araméenne à Éléphantine, p. 71.

and DTT are really, he holds, false pronunciations based on misunderstood writing—and in the living language, not in a learned revival! Driver passes over the mass of secondary h formations in Arabic and Ethiopic without a word. How thoroughly they are opposed to his results may be seen from the fact that DTDM, which is to him a "misinterpretation of $Abhr\bar{a}(h)m$," is supported by the Sabaean name Yhrhm (CIS IV, 394a), compared by the editor with Arabic 'árhama, "to drizzle." Driver's evolutionary scale for the Israelite divine name has at least the merit of originality: Yaw (Y) > $Y\bar{a}(h)w$ (YT) > Yahw > $Y\bar{a}h\hat{u}$ or $Y\bar{e}h\hat{o}$ > TTT (pronounced $Y\bar{a}h\hat{u}$). Even if this development places normal linguistic method upside down, all that is needed in order to obtain perfectly reasonable results is to set it upright again.

Waterman's analysis of the recent discussion of the Tetragrammaton is quite judicious, aside from his preference for an original *Yahwôh, ascribed by lapsus calami to "Albright," instead of "Luckenbill." However, it is a pleasure to read his rational discussion after the paradoxical speculations of the previously quoted scholar.

After this diversion we may return to our consideration of the name "Judah." As we have seen, the name has an early form, belonging with a group of proper names with passive verbal elements, found only in early personal names, as well as in still earlier place-names. There is, therefore, no reason to doubt that $Y^*h\hat{u}d\hat{u}h$ is a very ancient and probably a pre-Mosaic tribal name.

C. THE ETYMOLOGY OF TÔDÂH AND TÔRÂH

In our discussion of the name "Judah," we had occasion to study the forms of the verbs $h\hat{o}d\hat{a}h$ and $h\hat{o}r\hat{a}h$, paradigms of which we presented in tabular form. In the course of our investigation it became necessary to form a clear idea of the etymology of the former verb, especially in connection with Meyer's derivation of $Y^*h\hat{u}d\hat{a}h$ from $h\hat{o}d$, "glory, majesty." To subject $h\hat{o}d\hat{a}h$ to a philological analysis without also studying the closely parallel $h\hat{o}r\hat{a}h$ would be manifestly unmethodical,

so the latter was also considered. The analysis has been crowned with success, we believe, in both cases, thus settling one of the most elusive problems facing the Hebrew philologist. We refrain from giving a history of the efforts to relate the words to other Semitic words and roots, since this would unduly prolong the excursus and obscure the main subjects of our paper.

Neither hôdâh nor hôrâh are accompanied by any other conjugations in Hebrew, a fact which itself indicates strongly that they are both denominatives from the corresponding nouns tôdâh and tôrâh. It is still more striking to find that neither have any cognates among Semitic verbs derived from the stems wdy and wry, or related stems. The meaning of these stems is in both cases primarily "cast, throw," with various derived senses. It is true that $t \hat{o} d \hat{a} h$ has been compared to $d \tilde{i}' a h < d \tilde{i} y a t$, the old Arabic infinitive of the first conjugation of wada, which means "compensation, blood money," while tôrâh has been connected with Arab. rawa, "to report a tradition, recite a poem," but the comparisons are equally forced. In Jewish Aramaic we have some loan-words, which later passed into Syriac and Arabic, but despite the curious attitude of Bauer and Leander,37 they are admitted by all other scholars to be loan-words, since they have exactly the same meanings as the Hebrew words, and are totally without Aramaic analogy. From tôdâh was horrowed Aramaic and Syriac taudîtâ, while hôdâh passed over as the af'el ôdi or audi. The reflexive TIM, "to give thanks for oneself," is derived from Hebrew התודה, and from it comes Arabic استوري. From tôrâh Jewish Aramaic borrowed *tôraitâ, in the sense "law of Moses," but dissimilated it to ôraitâ.30 in which form it passed into Syriac, while the undissimilated

³⁷ On pp. 495-8 of their grammar they derive tôrāh from *taṣrajat, comparing 'ôrajtā, and tôdāh from *taṣadtjat, comparing taṇadījā. The practice of using loan-words to determine the original vocalization of the words from which they have been borrowed is certainly quite foreign to the historical method of the authors, so we may set it down as a slip.

²⁵ Cf. Nöldeke, Neue Beiträge, p. 35, and Brockelmann, Lexicon Syriacum², p. 49 a.

form came into Arabic (long before Mohammed!) as taurât, "Old Testament."

Having cleared the ground of encumbrances, we would propose the identification of the word $t\partial d\hat{a}h$ with Accadian (Assyrian) $t\hat{a}nattu$, later $t\hat{a}nittu$ (the usual form), "glory, praise, song of praise," having thus the same meanings exactly as the Hebrew word. Heb. $t\hat{o}r\hat{a}h$ we would identify with Accadian $t\hat{e}rtu$ (for * $t\hat{a}rtu$, like ersitu for *arsatu, etc.), "commission, command, oracle, especially of hepatoscopy (the oracle par excellence)." Haupt and Zimmern long ago tried to explain $t\hat{o}r\hat{a}h$ as a loan from the late form $t\hat{e}rtu$, comparing the South Arabian pronunciation $m\hat{e}r\hat{i}$ for $m\hat{o}r\hat{e}h$, "teacher," etc. But there is no parallel, and $t\hat{o}r\hat{a}h$ is too well attested in early sources to be a loan-word of the time of the Babylonian Exile, as they maintained.

Acc. tanittu is derived from the stem na'adu, "to praise," and thus stands for *tan'adatu; the plural is tanadati (not tanadati, since there is compensatory lengthening of the first a). The stem na'adu appears in Ethiopic as ne'da, "praise," and Haupt has proposed that the same verb be restored in the Song of Moses. Since Ethiopic is not very accurate in its weak laryngeals, and the verb appears in Arabic as nhd, "to swell," it is better to trace the Accadian and Hebrew words back to a stem *nahâdu, especially since we actually have the noun hadi in Hebrew. The etymological associations of the stem have been discussed by the writer in AJSL XXXIV, 255, in connection with the treatment of Egyptian dhn, which may be a transposition of nhd. The original form of the word tanittu - tadah is thus *tanhadatu, with the accent on the first syllable, as is the rule in parent Semitic. In Assyrian, as in Egyptian, as well as

³⁸ Ex. 15s he read ארזאָשְ. In the notes to his reconstruction, AJSL XX, 170-2, Haupt collected much of the material from the cognate languages, but forgot to mention né'da, which he unquestionably had long combined with ma'ddw. But it is much more likely that we should read simply ארזאא instead of the ארזאא of A, if an emendation is necessary.

⁴⁰ Cf. Brockelmann, Vergleichende Grammatik, I, pp. 72-3; Bauer-Leander, p. 179. While in Classical Arabic there is hardly any stress accent, in parent Semitic there must have been a rather strong accent

some dialects of Modern Arabic, the accent was shifted forward so that it could never fall before the antepenult, counting the case ending, or the penult, disregarding it.41 The original *tánhadatu thus became *tan'údatu > *tânúdtu (with compensatory lengthening of the first a and elision of the short a following the accent, in an open syllable) > tânattu, tânittu. In Hebrew. as in Ethiopic and Aramaic, the accent moved forward to the last syllable, disregarding the original vocalic endings. Accordingly *tánhadatu became *tanhadát. But in Hebrew there was always a tendency to assimilate the nûn to a following consonant, even a laryngeal. The assimilation of $n\hat{u}n$ to a following laryngeal is most common in a syllable some distance before the accent, as אַנוֹין for *yi"asip < *yin'asip < *yan'asipu, and מהקרץ for *mihhaqîs < *minhaqîs. Hence *tanhadút became *tahhadút > *tâhădát, and with the elision of an intervocalic h, which also is most frequent some distance before the accent, as in TIP for אָנוּדוּה, *tâadát, *tâdát, from which tôdâh is directly derived. Since tôdâh appears to be a derivative from a YD verb, the denominative $\hat{h}\hat{o}d\hat{a}h$ was naturally formed on this analogy. As will be seen, there is not the least difficulty in the derivation of tôdâh from *tánhadatu; all the changes are perfectly regular.

The fortunes of language have preserved two nouns from the stem *nhd in Hebrew: nôd, "skin-bottle" (Assyr. nâdu), and hôd, "glory." The word nôd (TKI) may be a direct loan from Assyrian nâdu, or it may stand for *nahd; the Arabic cognate nahd means "female breast;" cf. Arab. watb, which is both "skin-bottle" and "female breast" (AJSL XXXIV, 255). Words for "skin-bottle" in Semitic are often derived from verbs meaning "to swell, become large." The second word hôd, "glory," with a meaning included in that of Assyr. tânittu, is probably the infinitive of 7712*, just as bûl, "produce," properly bôl, seems to be the infinitive of 772* (cf. Assyr. biltu, the correct old infinitive of wabâlu, with the same meaning as bûl). All beginners in

on the long syllable of a word, and on the first syllable when all were short.

⁴¹ For Assyrian (Accadian) see the remarks of the writer in Revue d'Assyriologie, Vol. XVI (1919), p. 175 above; for Egyptian Recueil de Travaux, Vol. XL (1923), p. 66.

Hebrew are now told that verbs $primae \ n\hat{u}n$ in Hebrew generally follow the analogy of verbs Y'D, so there is no need of explaining this phenomenon here. The forms $h\hat{o}d$ for * $n^{e}h\hat{o}d$ and * $b\hat{o}l$ for * $y^{e}b\hat{o}l$ are presumably due to the analogy of the alternative infinitives * $h\hat{e}det$ (like $y\hat{e}\hat{s}et$) and * $b\hat{e}let$ (< biltu).

Turning to $t\hat{o}r\hat{a}h = t\hat{e}rtu$ we find a decidedly easier problem to solve, since *táu'aratu⁴² is by no means so formidable in appearance as *tánhadatu - tôdâh. *Táu'aratu became *tau'arát by the Hebrew accent shift, and the latter form became inevitably *tô'arát. Between vowels the 'alef is generally elided when one is a semi-vowel (Bauer-Leander, \$ 25h, p. 224), so *tô'arát became quite naturally tôrát, tôrâh. The best parallel is in the Hebrew word for "twins," which appears as tômîm (DDIA) in Gen. 25 24, and is written elsewhere with the historic spelling DONA and DONA, both pronounced, however, tômîm. The former is the correct vocalization, since to"amim stands, as we shall see presently, for *tau'āmîm; the later is vocalized on the analogy of \mathbb{R}^{2} , pronounced $b\hat{e}r$ for $b\check{e}'r < b\check{i}'r$. Brockelmann. Vergleichende Grammatik. Vol. I. p. 79, thinks that there were double singular forms, just as in Arabic táu'am and tu'âm, but the latter is quite secondary, and represents a conformation to the nominal class fu'al, as is shown by the Assyrian tû'amu, for *túu'amu, parallel to takšû, "plural birth," for *tákša'u, as shown by the writer in the Revue d'Assyriologie, Vol. XVI (1919), p. 193, on No. 46.

^{4?} From the stem wa'āru, preserved in the first, second and third conjugations, with numerous derivatives, in Accadian. The first, with later infinitive 'āru, means "to go, in general," while the second, with later infinitive mu'uru, means "cause to go, send, bring, commission, rule." The noun wrtu (for "wa'urtu, later "wu'urtu, 'urtu) has exactly the same meanings as têrtu, which is alone enough to prove that têrtu really is derived from this stem, as held by all the lexicographers, including Bezold-Götze, despite occasional suggestions such as that têrtu may <*tahrirtu (Haupt), which replaced a much earlier connection by Haupt with Eth. temhert. Now that the Old Accadian forms of the stem wa'āru have been found, it is no longer possible to combine the later mu'uru with the stem was previously the natural thing to do. The latter is, of course, actually found in Acc. mūru, "colt" — Arab. muhr, and māru, "child," etc.

The only possible objection that can be raised to the derivations proposed for tôdâh and tôrâh from the standpoint of the Hebrew grammarian is that one would expect some trace of the historic spelling, at least in the word tôrâh. Otherwise the explanations given are inexpugnable, since we have the corresponding Accadian words, with the same meanings precisely, and have excellent Hebrew parallels for every phonetic change required. Bauer and Leander have proved that the 'alef had quiesced in such words as rôs, "head," for *ra's, before the fifteenth century B. C. But the historic spelling with 'alef was retained for two reasons. First, there were probably dialects of Hebrew-Canaanite where the 'alef either did not quiesce, or was restored secondarily. Moreover, all such words have related words or grammatical modifications where the 'alef does not quiesce. Thus rôs stands side by side with a plural rôsim, where the quiescing is proved to be very recent, comparatively speaking, by the fact that the short a vowel has become games, but not hôlem. In other words, while *ra's became *râs, rôs, *ra'sîm remained, only becoming rasim later. As soon as there ceased to be any such reason for the retention of the 'alef, it was naturally dropped. In the case of torah, there was no such inducement to preserve the 'alef, since no other word from the stem w'r appears to have survived. Moreover, the denominative hôrah bears a perfectly regular relation to tôrah, as though the latter were a taf alat noun derived from it, so the pressure of the tendency to conformation was entirely against the insertion or retention of the 'alef.

In this connection it will be useful to direct attention again to the various strata of feminine t-formations which we find in Hebrew. 43 First of all we have the form taf alat, regularly derived from verbs tertiae infirmae; illustrations are tiquah, "hope," ta'wah, "desire," to which tôdah and tôrah have become attached by analogy. Tiquah and ta'wah stand for "taquayat and "ta'wayat, respectively. These contracted forms are un-

⁴³ On the t-formations in Semitic see especially Barth, Nominalbildung, pp. 274 ff. The latest treatment for Hebrew is by Bauer and Leander, pp. 495 ff., but this section is inferior to most of their work.

questionably part of the most primitive stock of the Hebrew language. Secondly, we have the form taf'ilat, also regularly derived from verbs tertiae infirmae; illustrations are tûšivyâh, "cleverness" (with secondary û for ô as in tûgâh, "grief," for *tôgāh, a taf alat form derived from the stem yagāh). 44 and ta'niyyah, "lamentation." The doubling of the yod is secondary, following the analogy of *Y hûdiyyâh, for *Yehûdîyát. 48 and similar feminine gentilics. We should most emphatically not be justified in assuming from the doubling of the uod that tûšiyyâh represents a form taf'ilat. The third feminine t-formation is the tabuit class. This class is exceedingly common in Accadian, where we have, e. g., tabnîtu, taknîtu. 46 tašrîtu, taslîtu, tabritu. It is just as common in Aramaic, where it is also original, though there are numerous Accadian loanwords of the same type. In Accadian, however, both taf alat and taf ilat forms are represented; taknîtu, for instance, may stand for either *taknáyatu > *taknaitu or *takníyatu > *takniitu. We also have this nominal type in Phoenician, as in the name of king Tabnît, who flourished in Sidon in the fifth century B. C. At the same time, it is quite likely that many, if not most of the nouns of this class in later Hebrew are Aramaic loan-words. The originally taf' dat nouns which are not loan-words probably

⁴⁴ Heb. tūšiyyāh, "cleverness," has never been adequately explained etymologically. *Tāwðiyat is derived from a stem wsy, which would be in Arabic. But there actually is an old stem وسى in Arabic, meaning "to cut," in māsā, "razor," combined long ago by Ember with Eg. wsy, "to saw." Tūšiyyāh, therefore, is properly "keenness, sharpness, shrewdness," naturally without the unpleasant connotation which these words have in modern languages; see RA XVI, 178 f.

⁴⁵ Originally the gentilic ending was ayyu, iyyu, but in all the Semitic languages the doubling was early given up, with compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowel, so the Hebrew doubling is probably secondary.

⁴⁶ Assyr. taknitu, "completion, perfection, skilful preparation," is identical with Heb. taklit; for the change of l to n cf. Arab. kannah, "bride," Heb. kallah, Assyr. kallatu. The stems killah in Hebrew and kunna in Accadian are, therefore, identical, a discovery which disposes completely of the etymological struggles of the writer, JAOS XL, 322, n. 32. The meaning assigned kunna there is wrong; cf. Bezold-Götze, v. Kunna-killah has nothing to do with the other stems there mentioned.

came into Biblical Hebrew (the dialect of Jerusalem, as we now know from the inscriptions and ostraca) from Northern Israel, where the feminine t was usually preserved, whereas in Judah it was almost always lost. $Ta'niyy\hat{a}h$ is thus characteristically South Israelite, while tablit, etc., are properly North Israelite. That we must assume a considerable amount of fusion of dialects in the Classical Hebrew of Jerusalem is just as certain now as that Modern German has grown up in this way.

The preceding pages are designed as a contribution to a scientific study of Hebrew proper names.⁴⁷ We need scientific study in this field very badly, especially since the recent reaction against over-reliance on orthodox Hebrew grammar has led to hopelessly eclectic modes of investigation, where philological laws are honored only in the exception. But a better day for scientific philology is dawning, partly because the dilettantes are abandoning the philological ship, whose popularity they have reason for doubting. When the rats are gone, serious students will see that the vessel is made seaworthy!

47 There is a great need for a new book along the lines of George Buchanan Gray, Hebrew Proper Names, in its day an excellent treatise. Now, thanks to the discovery of the early West Semitic and South Arabian proper names, as well as to the researches of scholars like Moritz in the vast field of North Arabic and Nabataean names, our material for comparison has been enormously increased. Moreover, a more scientific study of the Greek transcriptions in the Septuagint, along the lines being marked out by Margolis, will dispose of many peculiar and corrupt forms of \$\mathfrak{A}\$. A most admirable preliminary study has just heen published by Noth in the ZDMG 1927, 1-45.